

# CS450

## Structure of Higher Level Languages

Lecture 20: Abstracting shared state manipulation

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Press arrow keys   to change slides.

# Today we will...

- Introduce a functional pattern monads
- Introduce state monads
- Introduce stack machines

# Functional pattern: Mutable state

# Revisiting our reduction rules

$$\blacktriangleright_H v \Downarrow_E v \blacktriangleright_H$$

$$\frac{\blacktriangleright_{H_1} e_f \Downarrow_E (E_f, \lambda x.t_b) \blacktriangleright_{H_2} e_a \Downarrow_E v_a \blacktriangleright_{H_3} E_b \leftarrow E_f + [x := v_a] \blacktriangleright_{H_4} t_b \Downarrow_{E_b} v_b \blacktriangleright_{H_5}}{\blacktriangleright_{H_1} (e_f e_a) \Downarrow_E v_b \blacktriangleright_{H_5}}$$

Effectful computation can be divided into three categories:

- Side-effect free computation in **blue**
- Computation that directly produces side effect in **red**
- Computation that indirectly produces some side-effect in **black**

We are  $\blacktriangleright$  chaining  $\blacktriangleright$  effectful  $\blacktriangleright$  computations  $\blacktriangleright$ , that is the variables declared on the left-hand side of  $\blacktriangleright$  should be accessible in the right-hand side.

# Refactoring memory-based operations

```
;; e1 ↓E v1
(define v1+mem1 (d:eval-exp mem env e1))
(define mem1 (eff-state v1+mem1))
(define v1 (eff-result v1+mem1))
;; E' <- E + [x := v1]
(define env2+mem2 (environ-push mem1 env y v1))
(define env2 (eff-result env2+mem2))
(define mem2 (eff-state env2+mem2))
;; e2 ↓E' v2
(define v2+mem3 (d:eval-exp mem2 env2 e2))
(define mem3 (eff-state v2+mem3))
(define v2 (eff-result v2+mem3))
```

The memory needs to be passed along from one function call to the next. How can we refactor this code so that some function does that for us?

# Refactoring evaluation of application

```
;; e1 ↓E v1  
(define* v1 (d:eval-exp* env e1))  
;; E' ← E + [x := v1]  
(define* env2 (environ-push* env y v1))  
;; e2 ↓E' v2  
(define* v2 (d:eval-exp* env2 e2))
```

At each step we separate the result from the state.

Our goal is to **abstract** the memory threading, that is to refactor away this mechanic unpacking of the side effect structure.

# Abstracting the state

## Ideal pseudo code

In today's class, we introduce an abstraction that allows us to achieve something similar to the pseudo-code below. We highlight in yellow effectful definitions and operations.

```
;; e1 ↓E v1  
(define* v1 (d:eval-exp* env e1))  
;; E' ← E + [x := v1]  
(define* env2 (environ-push* env y v1))  
;; e2 ↓E' v2  
(define* v2 (d:eval-exp* env2 e2))
```

# Roadmap: abstracting effectful computation

Combining:

- **Effectful operations:** `s:eval-exp` and `environ-push`, with
- **Effectful variable declaration:** `v1`, `env2`, and `v2`

```
;; e1 ↓E v1  
(define* v1 (d:eval-exp* env e1))  
;; E' ← E + [x := v1]  
(define* env2 (environ-push* env y v1))  
;; e2 ↓E' v2  
(define* v2 (d:eval-exp* env2 e2))
```

$$e_1 \downarrow_E v_1 \blacktriangleright E' \leftarrow E + [y := v] \blacktriangleright e_2 \downarrow_{E'} v_2$$



A proxy example

# Arithmetic on the heap

# Example

Consider a heap of integers. We allocate two integers and then a third integer that holds the sum of the first two.

```
(: prog1 (-> (heap Real) (eff (heap Real) handle)))  
(define (prog1 h1)  
  ;; allocate x with 1  
  (define eff-x (heap-alloc h1 1))  
  (define x (eff-result eff-x))  
  (define h2 (eff-state eff-x))  
  ;; allocate y with 2  
  (define eff-y (heap-alloc h2 2))  
  (define y (eff-result eff-y))  
  (define h3 (eff-state eff-y))  
  ;; allocate z with (+ x y)  
  (heap-alloc h3 (+ (heap-get h3 y) (heap-get h3 x))))
```

# Effectful operations

- An **effectful operation** takes a state and returns an effect `eff` that pairs some state with some result. An effectful operation is parameterized by the state type and by the result type.

```
(define-type (eff-op State Result) (-> State (eff State Result)))
```

Did you know?

- The state (`heap`) is a parameter, so that we can combine effectful operations.

# Effectful operations

- Below we define two effectful operations where the state is a heap.

```
(: num (-> Real (eff-op (heap Real) handle)))  
(: add (-> handle handle (eff-op (heap Real) handle)))
```

Did you know?

- Functions `num` and `add` each returns an effectful operation

Alloc

```
(define (num x)  
  (lambda ([h : (heap Real)])  
    (heap-alloc h x)))
```

Add

```
(define (add x y)  
  (lambda ([h : (heap Real)])  
    (heap-alloc h  
      (+ (heap-get h y) (heap-get h x)))))
```



# Sequencing effectful operations

## Example

```
(define (prog2 h1)
  ;; allocate x with 1
  (define eff-x ((num 1) h1))
  (define x (eff-result eff-x))
  (define h2 (eff-state eff-x))
  ;; allocate x with 2
  (define eff-y ((num 2) h2))
  (define y (eff-result eff-y))
  (define h3 (eff-state eff-y))
  ;; allocate y with (+ x y)
  ((add x y) h3))
```

## The bind operator

```
(define (bind o1 o2)
  (lambda (h1)
    (define eff-r (o1 h1))
    (define r (eff-result eff-r))
    (define h2 (eff-state eff-r))
    ((o2 r) h2)))
```

We highlight in yellow an example of redundant code. Function `bind` abstracts away the redundant code.



# Abstracting with `bind`

Before

```
(define (prog2 h1)
  ;; allocate x with 1
  (define eff-x ((num 1) h1))
  (define x (eff-result eff-x))
  (define h2 (eff-state eff-x))
  ;; allocate x with 2
  (define eff-y ((num 2) h2))
  (define y (eff-result eff-y))
  (define h3 (eff-state eff-y))
  ;; allocate y with (+ x y)
  ((add x y) h3))
```

After

```
(: prog3 (eff-op (heap Real) handle))
(define prog3
  (eff-bind (num 1)
    (lambda ([x : handle])
      ;; allocate x with 2
      (eff-bind (num 2)
        (lambda ([y : handle])
          ;; allocate y with (+ x y)
          (add x y))))))
```

Using the `bind` operator we remove redundant code. You can think of `bind` as a variable declaration, akin to an effectful `define`.



# Stack machines

The state does not need to be a heap

# Stack machines

- Uses a stack of number to represent memory (rather than registers)
- Variable-free code
- Very compact object code
- Examples of (virtual) stack machines: OpenJDK JVM, CPython interpreter

```
def mult():  
    x = pop  
    y = pop  
    push (x * y)  
def prog():  
    push(2)  
    push(5)  
    mult() # 2 * 5 = 10  
    push(2)  
    mult() # 10 * 2 = 20
```



# A stack-based evaluator

## Operations

- `push(n) -> (void)`
- `pop() -> number`

## State

# A stack-based evaluator

## Operations

- `push(n) -> (void)`
- `pop() -> number`

## State

- a list of numbers

# Implementing pop

```
(: pop (-> (eff-op (Listof Real) Real)))  
(define (pop)
```

# Implementing pop

```
(: pop (-> (eff-op (Listof Real) Real)))  
(define (pop)
```

```
  (lambda (stack)  
    (eff (rest stack) (first stack))))
```

# Implementing push

```
(: push (-> Real (eff-op (Listof Real) Void)))  
(define (push n)
```

# Implementing push

```
(: push (-> Real (eff-op (Listof Real) Void)))  
(define (push n)
```

```
  (lambda (stack)  
    (eff (cons n stack) (void))))
```

# Implementing `mult`

```
def mult():  
    x = pop  
    y = pop  
    push (x * y)
```

# Implementing `mult`

```
def mult():  
  x = pop  
  y = pop  
  push (x * y)
```

```
(: mult (-> (eff-op (Listof Real) Void)))  
(define (mult)  
  (eff-bind (pop)  
    (lambda ([x : Real])  
      (eff-bind (pop)  
        (lambda ([y : Real])  
          (push (* x y))))))))
```



# Implementing prog

## Pseudo Code

```
def prog():  
    push(2)  
    push(5)  
    mult() # 2 * 5 = 10  
    push(2)  
    mult() # 10 * 2 = 20
```

# Implementing prog

## Pseudo Code

```
def prog():  
  push(2)  
  push(5)  
  mult() # 2 * 5 = 10  
  push(2)  
  mult() # 10 * 2 = 20
```

## In Racket

```
(: prog4 (eff-op (Listof Real) Void))  
(define prog4  
  (eff-bind (push 2)  
    (lambda (x1)  
      (eff-bind (push 5)  
        (lambda (x2)  
          (eff-bind (mult)  
            (lambda (x3)  
              (eff-bind (push 2)  
                (lambda (x4)  
                  (mult))))))))))
```

Unfortunately, the code appears very nested if we indent it as we usually do. **Can we do better?**



# Sequencing effectful operators

# Sequencing effectful operators

Solution

Revisit `prog4`

```
(define (seq2 op1 op2)
  (eff-bind op1 (lambda (x) op2)))

(define (seq op . ops)
  (cond [(empty? ops) op]
        [else (seq2 op (apply seq ops))]))
```

# Sequencing effectful operators

## Solution

```
(define (seq2 op1 op2)
  (eff-bind op1 (lambda (x) op2)))

(define (seq op . ops)
  (cond [(empty? ops) op]
        [else (seq2 op (apply seq ops))]))
```

## Revisit prog4

```
(define prog5
  (seq (push 2)
       (push 5)
       (mult)
       (push 2)
       (mult)))
```

## Limitations

The `seq` operator is a regular function call, which takes *expressions* as its arguments. This complicates a situation where we might need to create a temporary variable (say to cache a result) in the middle of a `seq`.

# Syntactic sugar for stateful operations

# Syntactic sugar: the `do` notation

Macros can be useful technique to avoid redundant code. In our case, we are using a macro to avoid syntactic verbosity.

```
(define-syntax do
  (syntax-rules (<-)
    ; Only one monadic-op, return it
    [(_ mexp) mexp]
    ; A binding operation
    [(_ var : ty <- mexp rest ...) (eff-bind mexp (lambda ([var : ty]) (do rest ...)))]
    ; No binding operator, just ignore the return value
    [(_ mexp rest ...) (eff-bind mexp (lambda (_) (do rest ...)))]))
```

You do not need to understand this code today. We will learn about macros in detail in a future lesson.



# Syntactic sugar: the `do` notation

The `do` notation allows us to make our code less nested. The cost of using macros is that they obfuscate the program's semantics.

Before

```
(define (mult)
  (bind (pop)
    (lambda (x)
      (bind (pop)
        (lambda (y)
          (push (* x y))))))))
```

After

```
(define (mult2)
  (do
    x : Real <- (pop)
    y : Real <- (pop)
    (push (* x y))))
```

## Limitations

Similarly to `seq`, because of how the macro was designed, it takes a sequence of expressions. Monadic interfaces usually introduce an operator `pure` to work around the issue.





# The pure operator

The pure operator simply converts a pure (non-effectful) value into an effectful value, leaving the state unaltered. One useful benefit of this is that it allow us to combine effectful and pure operations in the same interface.

The pure operator

```
(define (eff-pure v)
  (lambda (st)
    (eff st v)))
```

Example

```
(define (mult)
  (do
    x : Real <- (pop)
    y : Real <- (pop)
    z : Real <- (eff-pure (* x y))
    (push z))))
```

# Summary: the monad

A monad is a **functional pattern** which can be categorized of two base combinators:

- **Bind:** combines two effectful operations  $o_1$  and  $o_2$ . Operation  $o_1$  produces a value that is consumed by operation  $o_2$ .
- **Pure:** Converts a pure value to a monadic operation, which can then be chained with `bind`.

■ In this course, we will learn that the monadic pattern appears in different contexts.

# Summary: the state monad

- **Data:** the monadic data is a pair (struct `eff`) that holds the global state and some result.
- **Bind:** combines operation  $o_1$  with operation  $o_2$ ; after executing  $o_1$ , we get a new state and some result that are both fed into operation  $o_2$ .

## To think...

Monadic function application: can we create a function call where all arguments are monadic values? What about a monadic map? And a monadic fold?

```
(define (mult)
  (do
    z <- (mapply * (pop) (pop))
    (push z)))
;; Or, simply: (define (mult) (bind (mapply * (pop) (pop)) push))
```